

THE

QUIET

A MAGAZINE FOR JOURNALISTS



August, 1952

WHEN EVERYBODY TRIES TO RUN A T-V SHOW

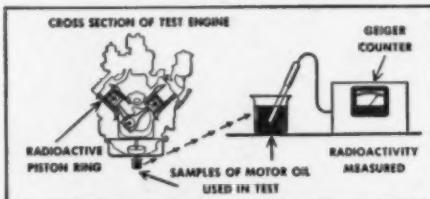
A commentator keeps his feet and his microphone with some difficulty during the Republican convention. See page 2.

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THE QUILL for August, 1952

Bylines in This Issue

WHAT use may a public official properly make of his inside knowledge of the people's business when he decides to write for one publisher or periodical? What ethically belongs to him as an author and what to all readers?

Richard L. Neuberger, who can ask awkward questions both as a writer and a public official, believes there are some facts and decisions which no office holder should reveal through an exclusive medium. He suggests that "Some Ground Rules Are Needed for Public Officials as Authors" (page 5).

Readers of *The Quill* as well as of magazines of general circulation know Dick Neuberger as both a forceful and a versatile writer. In the February issue of *The Quill*, he spoofed his own profession of journalism so successfully on abuses of "cheesecake" art that the spoof was reprinted for millions in the *June Reader's Digest*. In the April, 1950, issue of *The Quill*, he wrote a memorable criticism of the one party newspaper.

Dick is a shrewd observer of the American scene who enjoys a fight in print or in politics. His byline has appeared in the biggest "slicks" and in the leading magazines of opinion. As a state senator, he is one of the few Democrats in the legislature of Republican Oregon. Another Democrat is his wife who is a member of the lower house.

A native of Oregon who attended its state university and served in World War II as an Army captain, Dick is northwest correspondent for the *New York Times* and a former reporter and special writer for the *Portland Oregonian*. Among his books is the recently published "The Lewis and Clark Expedition," one of Random House's American Landmark series for children.

THE school of journalism has long since won almost universal acceptance for its graduates but it still has many problems. There are immediate questions of student selection, curriculum, faculty, budget. There are long distance goals of winning greater standing as centers of research and consultation for journalism in the same way the medical and law schools serve these professions.

Leslie G. Moeller outlines the journalism educator's current problems and looks into his future in "Goals of Professional Education for Journal-

ism" (page 6). This is the first of two articles by the director of the State University of Iowa school, one that is widely known and respected by educators and practicing journalists alike.

Les Moeller is especially well equipped to survey professional education for journalism. He was a member of the first journalism class to be graduated from Iowa. That was in 1925. He returned to the university twenty-one years later after two decades as a newspaper editor and publisher in Iowa. He became director of the school in 1947 after one year as the first chief of the university's bureau of newspaper service. Last year he was president of the Association of Accredited Schools and Departments of Journalism.

After college, he served briefly as advertising manager of the *Spencer News-Herald* and then was managing editor of the *New Hampton Gazette*. He went to Waverly, Iowa, in 1927, where he spent eighteen years as managing editor and publisher of the *Bremer County Independent* and the *Waverly Democrat*. During World War II he served more than two years in the Navy where he was an air combat intelligence officer based in the Aleutians.

He has been a member of the American Council on Education for Journalism and has held various posts in the Association for Education in Journalism. He was president of the Iowa Press Association in 1946-47. His many other activities and organizations range from the American Soci-

THE cover of this issue of *The Quill* shows dramatically how rival political camp followers tried to make the most of television during the Republican convention in Chicago. The broadcasters quickly learned to call them "goon squads." They were in fact overly enthusiastic young partisans of leading candidates who shouted, pushed and tried to get their banners in the act.

Clifton Utley of NBC was interviewing Senator Duff of Pennsylvania and Jack Porter, leader of the Eisenhower faction from Texas, for "We the People" when rival groups clashed in a corridor of the Conrad Hilton Hotel, convention headquarters. Utley was shoved towards his own camera and Porter (back to camera), turned to shove the shovels.

ological Society to the International Society for General Semantics.

FEW EVENTS have been covered so thoroughly as two years of war in Korea and a year of truce negotiations. It was inevitable that this reporting of bitter and inconclusive conflict and acrimonious and fruitless peace discussions should have produced its problems of censorship and its difficulties between press and military.

Captain Robert F. Karolevitz, a Pacific infantry veteran of World War II who returned to the Far East as a public information officer in Korea, decided to put down the record for the journalistic historians. Bob Karolevitz has been both soldier and journalist and he was a soldier again when he wrote "The Press and PIO in Korea" (page 8). He does not attempt to pass judgment but confines himself to a chronological sequence of war and truce coverage and the problems of censorship it produced.

Writing from Seoul just before sailing for home, he added: "I checked the article with John Rich, now NBC broadcaster here who started the war as an INS correspondent. John has been here longer than most of the reporters, except maybe Keyes Beech [Beech wrote the first Quill article on Korea during the retreat from Seoul two years ago] and he's got more rotation points than any of the Army people here now."

Bob Karolevitz was graduated from South Dakota State College in 1947 after three years in the Army. He served in the Philippines and Japan with the 25th Infantry Division—he wrote the division history—and won promotions from private to a captaincy. He was recalled to active duty in February, 1951, and assigned as a PIO at Seattle, a major point of embarkation and homecoming from Korea.

Finally, he wrote, "some unfriendly IBM machine flipped up my name and I was sent to Korea to replace one of the guys I had welcomed home." He has served since last fall as news and feature editor of the Eighth Army section dealing with Army PIOs and plans to return to a free-lancing civilian career.

Between Army hitches, Bob was sports editor of the *Yankton (S.D.) Press and Dakotan* and a publicist for the *Curtiss Candy Company* in Chicago. He also managed to acquire a master's degree in journalism at the University of Oregon. He described the Armed Forces Information School in the November, 1950, *Quill*.

THE QUILL

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From Evian to Chicago

DISCUSSING the press as a tool of free societies in this column last month, I handed a respectful bouquet to the International Press Institute. I was pleased to be able to report that, in the opinion of realistic American newspapermen present at the Paris meeting, editors of many countries were thinking in our language of ways to make journalism both freer and more effective.

A few weeks later another international group of newspapermen met in France, this time at Evian. It was the Congress of the Free World Press, attended by 200 newsgatherers from thirty-three countries.

Unlike the IPI sessions, the Evian congress spent a lot of its time and energy debating, not the positive goals of a freer and better press, but the negative issue of precisely what constitutes false news and how to punish those who might write it. A couple of typical incidents at Evian show why it bogged down in accomplishment.

Five Lebanese newspapermen were shushed when they asked discussion of the jailing of two Beirut publishers and the temporary suppression of seven newspapers which had opposed government policy. To bring this up at Evian, it was felt, "might embarrass the Lebanese minister in Paris." A Swede who suggested that any discussion of false news ought also to cover the responsibility of government agencies not to hand out false denials or half-truths found himself "out of order."

Paul Ghali, Chicago *Daily News* foreign correspondent who was at Evian, had an explanation. "Maybe," he wrote, "it was the double fact that the Evian congress meets under French government auspices and counts more high officials, deputies and ministerial representatives than 'free newspapermen' on its executive committee." The nice irony of this qualifying "maybe" will be evident to all journalists.

At almost the same time the journalists were tiptoeing carefully around the toes of government at Evian, a fine, open, foot-stamping ruckus was going on in Chicago over the rights of journalism's newest medium to televise one of the explosive sideshows of the Republican national convention. This was the National Committee's preliminary hearing of rival Southern delegations.

The television industry was highly indignant—and told the world so—when its equipment, as well as all cameras and sound recording, was barred from the hearing room. It didn't make a lot of difference in the end (except to the politicians) because the hearings were covered for everybody in the usual way.

Television had its innings on delegate contests several days later when the credentials committee retraced the

same ground in full view of the cameras. But in the meantime the very frankness and vigor with which the issues were bared was so far removed from the timidities at Evian as to point up sharply how very free American journalism is not only to demand all the news but to take its right to have it before the court of public opinion with little doubt as to the outcome.

Actually, television lost the initial battle because it landed in the middle of a family quarrel. Taft supporters believed televising the national committee's hearings on delegates would do their cause no good. Eisenhower backers figured just the opposite. But they were outnumbered and television lost the round.

Yet this apparent victory over television was a very temporary one. Practically the first thing the convention did when it convened a few days later was to pass the resolution on delegates that gave Eisenhower his important initial victory. Popular resentment over the earlier secrecy—the very hint that the barring of television from one committee session had somehow brought back the "smoke-filled room"—undoubtedly played a role in the convention's vote.

As this was written, during the convention week, television was doing fine. I watched the opening day defeat of the Brown amendment on delegates closely. It was effectively screened, moving smoothly back and forth from rostrum to state delegations as the vote was tabulated to give a far more coherent pictorial story than one could have had if he had been in the convention hall.

I felt once again the almost awesome power, especially of live television. At the same time some of the drearier reaches of convention pro-convention and committee procedure revealed its handicaps. At its best it is a new and unbeatable form of reporting and theater rolled into one. But however clever its direction, live television can be little livelier than its subject.

I have no fear that camera and unedited sound alone will seriously impare the interpretive function of the journalist. People will always see and still ask what it means; hear and want to know what was really said, and why. Television, like radio, will continue to rely on its commentators. And in the foreseeable future the printed word will still afford an interpretation that, if less vivid, is at once more complete and more compact and certainly more timeless.

This competitive wealth of communication presents tough economic, technical and ethical problems for journalism to solve. But as long as journalism, and not government, is permitted to solve them there is one group that cannot lose. That is the public in whose name this competitive freedom is exercised. **CARL R. KESLER**

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This is the heyday of the big name byline. An office holder may properly write about his own opinions or experiences for pay but should he disclose decisions or facts that belong to everybody through an exclusive source? A nationally known writer who also happens to be a state senator suggests that

Some Ground Rules May Be Needed For Public Officials as Authors

By RICHARD L. NEUBERGER

SHOULD high officials of the United States government be allowed to write exclusively on public policy for a single book publisher, newspaper syndicate or periodical? This is a question which, it seems to me, the press of the nation must confront directly sooner or later.

It is one thing for a cabinet officer or senator, or even a president, to write in the realm of opinion, where the material is the product of his own mind and ingenuity. But to announce important decisions or to reveal basic facts through one exclusive source could imperil our whole system of free information. When the official has been paid handsomely for these disclosures, a further menace may be added, although this is not the basic issue.

Let's be specific. Here is Senator Douglas of Illinois, writing in the *New York Times* magazine on the exhausting routine imposed upon the average senator from a large industrial state. Here is Congressman Mason, likewise of Illinois, telling in *Readers' Digest* why he believes co-ops and fraternal organizations should be taxed.

These subjects are personal to the individual officials. They stem from their own viewpoints and experiences. They are proper topics for amplification in an exclusive source.

But here is Secretary of the Interior Chapman writing in a magazine on the existing supply available of such strategic minerals as copper, tungsten and iron ore. This, in my estimation, is quite a different matter. The Interior Department is the custodian of our natural resources. If the head of that department has significant data at hand on the depletion of these resources, should I, as a citizen and taxpayer, have to buy one particular publication to learn of this?

Of course, Secretary Chapman, who is an outstanding public official, wrote

his article with plenty of precedent. I am looking at a piece prepared for a national publication in 1941 by Mr. Chapman's famous predecessor, the late Harold L. Ickes. The title of the article is "That Oil Shortage." Mr. Ickes wrote it as the national petroleum coordinator. It divulged statistics and figures relating to the fuels at the disposal of the country.

Obviously, these facts concerned every motorist and business man. But why should an American citizen have to purchase a particular book, newspaper or magazine to learn what the government official in charge of petroleum has in store for him regarding next month's quota of gasoline?

IN addition to being a journalist, I am a public official in a very modest part-time capacity. I am a member of the Oregon State Senate. I think it is in order for me to write an article telling why I think our state should authorize a convention to draft a new Oregon constitution. But I believe it would be unethical for me to detail exclusively, for one Oregon newspaper or press service, the steps in a committee of which I am chairman to bring out a bill regulating election campaign expenditures in the state.

The American people pay generously to support their various units of government. They have a right to expect that basic and relevant facts about the operations and policies of that government, be it at the federal or local level, will be given to them through the whole press and not one particular channel.

Writing in the *St. Louis Post-Dispatch*, Raymond P. Brandt recently went to some pains to point out that Harry Truman "will not receive a cent for penning about 65,000 words of the 80,000 words of the best-seller, 'Mr. President.' So far as I am concerned, this explanation was not required. 'Mr. President' consisted al-

most entirely of Harry Truman's personal observations regarding the greatest elective office on earth. Even though he was still in that office, the President had a right to present such a book to the nation and to the world.

But what if Mr. Truman were to write a book revealing certain hitherto-unknown facts on the international situation which made imperative the enactment of Universal Military Service? Would such authorship be a danger to the free dissemination of information? I believe it would. There can be no valid objection, in my opinion, to "Mr. President." But what of the articles Harry Truman wrote on the findings of the Truman War Investigating Committee when he was a senator from Missouri? Should these findings have been discussed in exclusive sources?

A recent article in the *New York Times* magazine revealed that the average senator and congressman adds about \$3,350 a year to his income from writing and lecturing. The article pointed out that this was felt to be essential because of inadequate pay.

If a senator is as resourceful and as full of ideas as Paul H. Douglas or Wayne Morse, he has no trouble coming up with opinions and proposals which are properly topics for individual expression. But many Washington correspondents have wondered about the best-selling book which Senator Kefauver wrote on the disclosures dug up by his Senate Crime Investigating Committee.

PROBABLY there is a twilight zone that will be difficult to demarcate with hard and fast boundaries. Yet I believe that all newspapers and magazines should have equal access to fundamental facts about governmental actions, decisions and policies.

Should J. Edgar Hoover, for ex-

[Turn to page 11]

The journalist who studied his profession in college has won wide acceptance from employers. But his teachers are still asking just whom they should teach, what they should teach and how. The director of a top-ranking school discusses present and future

Goals of Professional Education for Journalism

By LESLIE G. MOELLER

SCHOOLS of journalism have come a long way since the first formally organized school began classwork forty-four years ago. In the 1952 Editor & Publisher International Yearbook, ninety-six are listed; these probably include most of the schools giving professional-type (as distinguished from "background") journalism training. Of these, seventy schools, including all except one of the larger institutions, reported a total enrollment of 5,909 students in the *Journalism Quarterly* tabulation of September, 1951.

Acceptance of the schools is better too. Not many years ago the wise graduate often found it desirable to conceal the fact that he had "studied journalism in college." Today the 2,300 students getting degrees are finding a different situation, and the demand for them is heavy.

As Walter R. Humphrey, editor of the Fort Worth *Press*, said at the 1949 national convention of Sigma Delta Chi, professional journalistic fraternity, "We who hire are looking for, and depending on, college graduates." And when Prof. James L. Julian, then of the University of Miami department of journalism and now of San Diego State College, queried managing editors of dailies with circulation over 50,000 three years ago, he found generally good acceptance for schools of journalism training.

Julian asked "In hiring a man with no newspaper experience, do you prefer that he be: (a) non-college (b) major in one of the liberal arts subjects, or (c) major in journalism?" Of the sixty-two editors replying, 19 per cent preferred a liberal arts major, 72 per cent journalism major, 9 per cent both journalism graduate and liberal arts major, and none non-college.

Julian also asked much the same question in this form: "If you had to hire a man for a job for which a journalism major and a liberal arts

major had applied, would you select the journalism major—all other factors being equal?" Eight per cent said no, 90 per cent yes, and 2 per cent "liberal arts with 'some' journalism training."

This is not to say that no one is criticizing schools of journalism or that the work of the schools is above criticism. They are being criticized, and they need criticism—especially the comment which is thoughtful, reasoned, and non-emotional. Such comment on schools might well raise these questions, among others:

What can we, and what should we, expect today from good quality journalism schools?

What can we, and what should we, expect from them twenty years from now?

What problems do the schools face now, and in the future, in reaching these goals?

How can thinking workers in the mass media help journalism schools reach these goals more certainly and more rapidly?

TWENTY years from now the ideal goals of formal journalism education will probably still be those now recognized: (a) a helpful service program for the working profession (b) a long-range schedule of basic and applied research (c) a well-planned, effective teaching program.

Currently many schools, and especially the smaller schools, are able to do extensive work only in the teaching field—and certainly work in the service and research areas must be expanded by all schools if they are really to do a job.

The service program is off to a good start, but must be expanded and improved. The conference is probably the commonest form of service activity. More such conferences are needed for the organized interchange of ideas and methods by workers in the field and workers in the schools.



Leslie G. Moeller became director of the State University of Iowa school of journalism after 20 years on daily and weekly newspapers in his state.

To a considerable extent, conferences ought to emphasize more the long-range fundamentals of journalism, and less the how-to-do-it angles. And some way needs to be found to bring the conference to more workers (perhaps by taking the conference to the worker in the field) because thousands of firing-line staff members are not now reached by such sessions.

Schools will also almost certainly become enlarged "reference centers" for providing technical information on media philosophy and techniques. Work with professional associations will be expanded also. Eventually schools may be able to carry on, without too many fireworks, a program for appraising and evaluating the press, as a relatively impartial guide to desirable or necessary changes. (This is probably at least twenty years away.) Staff members of schools will also eventually be called upon as consultants by the media, for advice on programs and policies.

In research, work is only beginning. Most journalism school faculty members do not have time (or research funds) to do extensive or important projects. These beginnings are good, but not nearly enough. (What is to

day more important to the world than learning how effectively to transmit information which will be the basis of a more complete understanding among men everywhere?

Hundreds of problems remain untouched. Only small beginnings have been made in studying the public's attitudes toward the mass media, including what readers do and do not believe, readability, readership, depth of impact, methods of reaching the citizen with a frozen mind, methods of creating new interests, and many others. In the year 2,000 today's research in mass communications will seem almost prehistoric, if the work of schools in research can be expanded to fit the needs of the coming half-century.

Currently, more journalism students need an appreciation of the importance of research—and schools must also work to sell research to thousands of professional workers who understandably have little contact with communications research and little feeling for it.

BUT today the most important area in journalism schools is that of teaching—and probably this will be true also for the next twenty years.

This teaching program should have at least three over-all goals:

1. It should fit the student for being an effective citizen.
2. It should fit him for living a useful, full, satisfying life.
3. It should provide basic preparation for work in journalism.

The student's basic general education should give him a well-rounded (how easy it is to write that phrase, and how hard to reach up to it) understanding of the fundamentals of his world. This means a very basic approach to literature, history, social science, natural science, the arts—to get an over-all view.

It means a picture of how government works, how government is changing, and why it's changing. It means an overview of business and industry. It calls for some understanding of the patterns and drives of human action, of how men live and work together.

That background should give the student an awareness of his responsibilities as a citizen, and some understanding of and feeling for the problems of his nation and of the world. He should have, ideally, an "awareness" that will encourage him to keep on being informed.

So far as possible, he should have learned to think, and to evaluate, and to be deeply concerned about the search for truth. This means de-

veloping his curiosity and his imagination (no easy assignment).

He should have a good general understanding of the mass media, their rights, their freedoms, their problems, and their obligations in the modern world.

What about the student's training for work in journalism itself?

This is an area in which there will be much discussion and many disagreements—both among educators, and among the working press. For example, in the symposium on journalism schools in the 1948 "Once a Year," publication of the Milwaukee Press Club, one metropolitan city editor advises, "Teach him how to write simply and vigorously. Let him write, write, write," while another equally famous city editor declares "I firmly believe that writing for a newspaper is relatively simple, that any intelligent person can quickly learn newsroom methods. Therefore, I'm sure that we can teach in half an hour the basic writing methods that journalism schools labor over for weeks and years. I believe journalism students spend too much time writing—writing everything from book reviews to editorials to feature stories."

Basically, he should attain the minimum amount of skill to hold down his first job. He should not be expected to be a polished, finished performer, any more than the graduate of any other professional school is expected to be a fully seasoned product, but he must have the basic skills, the mental alertness, and the attitude to learn quickly on the job.

THE graduate must have certain technical skills, but they must not be overemphasized at the expense of the rest of his education. (It was John Paul Jones who said, "It is not enough that a graduate of the Naval Academy be a competent mariner.") He should be able to gather and to evaluate facts with moderate skill, and to write a direct, straightforward, accurate news story.

Of course much of his ability will be developed on the job, because, if for no other reason, he can not develop complete proficiency in the hours available in his college years. (On the average, the student will spend no more than the equivalent of two and one-half months studying and practicing all phases of reporting.) When an employer demands too high a level of technical proficiency, he is working for a reduction in the quality of the student's over-all preparation for newspaper work.

At the same time, the student working with the raw materials of news for the mass media will get much

more from his non-journalism studies. (This is one of the great justifications of the work and existence of schools of journalism.) With the aid of perceptive journalism instructors (who ideally have helped select the non-journalism courses), the student will develop a "sense of focus" which makes his over-all preparation for journalism much more effective. A good textbook explanation of city council procedure may unfortunately be only "words on a page" until the student faces coverage of a council meeting as a class or as a student-newspaper assignment.

Course work in journalism must also provide background perspective on the field as a whole; for example, work in history of journalism should give the student a feeling of the importance of work in journalism, and of how approaches and methods have changed.

NOW, what problems do schools face in reaching these goals?

These problems may be grouped in five major areas: those concerned with students, with the program of course work and other training, with faculty, with finances, and with relations with the working press.

For most schools, the great problems in the student area currently are two: How can the school be sure it is training good quality students? How can the school find and train enough good quality students to meet the current demand?

It is easy to say that a school should admit only those students who give substantial promise of doing good work in the field. But how is this to be done?

Most schools screen entrants on a basis of grades, although they are not always accurate indicators of ability. Many others use tests of various kinds; some tests are helpful, but no one has yet found any test or group of tests which is even reasonably consistent in predicting success in the field of journalism.

In the field, over the years, many a beginner who looked promising has turned out badly on his first job. In most cases, this is no particular reflection on the judgment or the character-appraising ability of the news executive who first hired him. It's hard to tell how a beginner will work out. Again, the beginner who does poorly on his first job will sometimes "get religion" and do much better in his second spot.

Much the same problem comes up in appraising journalism students, especially since many are still very much in the formative stages. (The

[Turn to page 12]



Captain R. F. Karolevitz is a newspaperman and a veteran who returned to the Pacific as a PIO in Korea.

SEOUL, KOREA.

NO war—or half-war—ever ends that the journalism scholars do not dust off their footnotes, adjust their bibliographies and start writing research papers on "The Press and the Great War." Korea will probably be no different, so for the men with the *ibid*s and *op. cit.*s, this article is written to ease some of the spadework of fact-gathering.

This is no attempt to go into the rights or wrongs of the press and military public information in Korea. (I do, however, have some strong thoughts on the matter!) Instead, I'll merely try to present some of the facts, dates and names—and leave the theses, conclusions and sum-totals for the experts when the final scores come in.

There will obviously be some loopholes, some blank spots and a few points for argument. After all I was wearing Uncle Sam's herring-bone twill when I wrote the piece, so much of the record comes from the Army's side of the fence.

When the North Koreans crossed the 38th parallel with some 60,000 troops on June 25, 1950, editors and generals were caught equally unawares. But by the time Major General William F. Dean, commanding general of the 24th Infantry Division, brought the first American troops to Korea on July 1, the editors had already hurried the initial wave of correspondents into the theater.

The first six months of the war were indeed helter-skelter as the military history will bear out. By August 7, a total of 271 correspondents from nineteen countries had

Press and PIO in Korea

By R. F. KAROLEVITZ

War correspondents and army alike have played by ear through both voluntary and double military censorship of battle and truce negotiations. Here's the record, with judgment reserved, for future journalistic historians.

been accredited to cover the "police action" beat (156 were American).

Meanwhile, the war was being covered as best one could under the fluid military situation. Communiques were issued by General MacArthur's headquarters in Tokyo, while reporters in Korea stayed with the troops and attended the irregular press conferences and briefings held by ranking officers in the battle zone.

Censorship at this stage was strictly on the "honor system." As United Nations forces were pushed back into the Pusan perimeter, conditions were somewhat hectic, but the "honor system" held up reasonably well. On July 30 a spokesman for General MacArthur said in Tokyo that there was no intention of imposing news censorship. He said that although there had been some publication of news which the Army would have preferred to release at a time of its own choosing, General MacArthur would much prefer that the correspondents exercise their own discretion.

SOME of the correspondents, however, were already asking for military censorship to take the weight of the problem off themselves. Worse hit were field reporters for *Pacific Stars & Stripes*, the Army's newspaper. Being Army enlisted men, they operated in Korea as did the civilian correspondents—but they were subject to "chewings" with every different interpretation of "voluntary censorship."

As the United Nations drive began to push northward, the reporters moved too. *Stars & Stripes* on August 15 carried the following reaction of a 24th Division PIO:

"At first we thought they would be a nuisance, poking around in what we thought was strictly our own business. But we soon learned from the men up front who shared foxholes with the press that they (the war correspondents) were making this war everybody's business and playing an important part in helping win it."

The military push was highlighted by the Inchon landing, the recapture

of Seoul, the crossing of the parallel, the drive to the Yalu and the entry of the Chinese Communist Forces (CCF) into the war. Again much of the briefing, fact-gathering and correspondent billeting was handled at corps and division levels. But EUSAK* PIO Advance moved, too, and for a time was set up in Pyongyang, the North Korean capital.

When December arrived, major press and PIO changes became imminent. The Reds were driving southward, and on December 2 EUSAK PIO Advance left Pyongyang to set up in Seoul. EUSAK PIO Rear was maintained in Taegu.

The censorship problem popped up in full bloom. On December 17 General Headquarters in Tokyo established a Press Advisory Division in its public information section. Its purposes were to furnish "accurate advice to the press on military matters not involving security and advice on any accuracies or inaccuracies in reports from the field, and to screen news copy, photographs, radio scripts and tape recordings for matter involving security."

On December 20, Colonel M. P. Echols, GHQ PIO, announced:

"Effective immediately all press stories, radio broadcasts, magazine articles and photography pertaining to military operations, whose origin is in Japan, will be submitted to the Press Advisory Division for clearance before transmission. . . . News stories emanating from Korea which have been cleared through Army-controlled communications need not be cleared unless they have been written in Japan."

"Stories emanating in Korea and transmitted by Army-controlled facilities will be screened for security in Korea. . . ."

TWO days after the fateful but very successful Hungnam evacuation, censorship finally reached Korea on December 26, 1950. The Eighth Army directive said:

* Eighth Army in Korea.



Brigadier General William P. Nuckols briefs correspondents in the "news room" of the press train at Munsan-ni from which they cover the truce talks. Others, from the left, are George Barrett, New York Times (back to camera); Pierre Guillery, Agence France Presse, Rowland Gould (standing) and John Ulm. The latter two newsmen are with Reuters.

"Complete censorship of all, repeat, all press and radio copy is effective now and hereafter. No story may be filed by any means of communication until it has been cleared by PIO EUSA. Public information officers will enforce this order and will permit no, repeat, no exceptions. . . ."

The Eighth Army Press Security Division (PSD) was approved by General Matthew B. Ridgway, and censorship operations got underway in Taegu and Seoul. This was the beginning of a barrelful of headaches.

The Army pegged its imposition of censorship upon the entry of the Chinese into the war. It had previously considered the North Korean Army, without air power, incapable of following up troop information released by the press. But the Chinese began taking advantage of these tips on troop movements, designations and strengths, so the period of "voluntary censorship" was brought to a close. A news break on the Hungnam affair supposedly forced this.

From the beginning the biggest problem for the censors was one of establishing, readjusting and follow-

ing the censorship criteria. These were ever-changing, and correspondents and censors alike were always trying to keep atop them. The original message from the Commander-in-Chief, Far East Command, contained four points for censorship review; the changing conditions of the war soon multiplied these.

AT first the following data could not be released:

- a. Information concerning planned activities.
- b. Enemy movement with respect to our boundary, weakness in our position.
- c. Information concerning effectiveness of specific items of enemy or United Nations materiel.
- d. Activities or locations of friendly troops except in terms of divisional unit or separate United Nations forces and then only when unit is in firm contact with the enemy.

Later this list ballooned to include such items as guerrilla activity, psychological warfare, movements of refugees, road and bridge conditions and uses, prisoner-of-war interviews,

speculation on future operations, etc.

Eighth Army's Press Security Division continued blue-pencil and struggling through its own problems until March 16. That date marked the beginning of what correspondents termed "double-censorship." While PSD reviewed news copy in Korea, GHQ's Press Advisory Division was rechecking everything in Tokyo. Correspondents tore their hair, and some, like Peter Kalischer of the *United Press*, wrote scathing stories.

On March 18 both *UP* and the *Associated Press* wrote what the Army considered "test" stories in which deletions were made by PSD as expected. The "test" came when the news agencies appealed to PAD in Tokyo. This, of course, caused considerable consternation. So many problems arose under such a setup that on April 22 General Van Fleet, EUSA's new commander, recommended that censorship become a theater function.

David McConnell, writing for the *New York Herald-Tribune* from Tokyo, lowered the boom on the Army with this June 3 release:

"Eighth Army retreated from newly-imposed censorship which had established a new high in confusion.... Feeling here is most censors are nice Army officers but inexperienced. Many ignorant of importance of public information and censor facts they object to personally but which State-side people should know."

Finally, on June 15, PSD was eliminated and GHQ's Press Advisory Division began a system of "single censorship" in offices both in Tokyo and in Korea. An *International News Service* release described the new procedure in these words:

"The strictest set of censorship regulations since the Korean war started will go into effect at midnight tomorrow.... (It) not only sets up stricter criteria for censoring news dispatches but provides a comprehensive code under which almost any story about daily war developments could be cut to vague generalities.... The new regulations also limit the use of telephones by correspondents at army headquarters. When they go into effect, correspondents will not be permitted to phone their stories to their Tokyo offices, but army telephone clerks will relay the dispatches."

WITH the coming of the armistice conferences in the summer of 1951, the tempo of war slowed. This made possible a more nearly permanent public information setup by the Army. It also necessitated special arrangements to cover the peace talks at Kaesong and Panmunjom.

I won't describe all the changes made by the EUSAk PIO section. I am including a typical Army chart to show basically what the setup was on June 1st of this year; it's been pretty much that way since the armistice talks started on July 10, 1951.

As I write this, the Information Section of EUSAk is divided into three divisions—Press, Administrative and News. Administrative, of course, handles the usual military paperwork and personnel problems. The Press Division is responsible for taking care of the correspondents. This division provides transportation, billeting, briefing and mess facilities for the reporters. Its center of operations is in Seoul; it also operates the peace talk Press Train.

The News Division, located with Army headquarters, confines itself mainly to working with corps, division and other unit PIOs. This division processes all Army-produced copy (press, radio and TV) and since December, 1951, has been responsible for censoring PIO-written releases

(which again leaves Korea with two separate censorship functions).

On the 10th of July a thirteen-car train rolled out of Seoul for a siding at Munsan-ni on the Imjin River. This train has since been the home-on-wheels for all correspondents covering the peace talks at Kaesong and Panmunjom. It has been fitted with radio broadcasting facilities, teletypes and living accommodations for reporters who make the daily trek across the river. A censor is always on duty there.

Brigadier General William P. Nuckles, official spokesman for the United Nations delegation (who wouldn't let me complete this story with a trip to Panmunjom because I was just another Army PIO), briefs and counsels the correspondents.

This article wouldn't be complete without a mention of several of the major "hassles" which developed between the Army and the press in Korea. There was the on-again-off-again censorship problem, complete with Army mistakes and "tricks" some correspondents used.

A British reporter named a ridge "Gloucester Hill" in an effort to inform his readers that the Gloucesters were on the spot. Some reporters tried codes and question-and-answer techniques in their telephone conversations. Researchers will most likely discover that neither the press nor the Army was pure-white.

Most notable of the front-page problems included the time *Reuters* scooped the world on the Hungnam invasion; the release of the atrocity story by Colonel James M. Hanley of the EUSAk Judge Advocate section on November 15, 1951; the premature

"cease-fire" news break by AP on November 28; and finally the Brigadier General Francis T. Dodd "capture" by his own prisoners on the island of Koje-do on May 7, 1952.

THE latter incident brought forth the following blast from Master-Sergeant Bill Fitzgerald, *Stars & Stripes* staff writer:

"The Army, by telling the whole story completely and quickly—within security limits—might have prevented a disagreeable crisis in its relations with the hardworking civilian press in Seoul.

"These boys have sweated out vague innocuous press releases for days. They were told by Eighth Army that any newsman who got to Koje-do without authorization would be impounded. But one man (Sanford Zalburg of *INS*) got there, and Sunday night the army made his story an official release!

"This is the old deal of one year ago when Allied correspondents were kept in the dark about momentous developments concerning the opening of armistice negotiations at Kaesong. Then, as now, the same confusion and bitterness existed. News-men were understandably angered by the withholding of information they believed the taxpayers back home... were entitled to read."

As the Korean "police action" wound up its second year, the Eighth Army was on its fifth Information Officer.

I have made no attempt to describe unit PIO setups, Air Force and Navy aspects or "rights" and "wrongs" of the whole business. Let the footnotes fall where they may!

This chart shows how the information service in Korea was set up in June.



Some Ground Rules May Be Needed

[Continued from page 5]

ample, write extensively on sensational criminal cases cracked by his men of the Federal Bureau of Investigation? The books and articles by Mr. Hoover, all out of FBI files, are voluminous. Does this information, when unclassified for strategic reasons, belong to the entire press or only to the publishing corporation with which Mr. Hoover has a contract? The question might also apply to Mr. Hoover's exclusive writings for a press service.

In my travels through Canada, I have not come across any writings by the commanding officer of the Royal Canadian Mounted Police to match the by-lines of J. Edgar Hoover over material about the FBI.

If J. Edgar Hoover were to write his memoirs upon retirement from government service, they would quite properly be material for exclusive distribution in book form. There is no real parallel between memoirs, prepared in retirement, and the declarations of a man wielding great governmental authority over us all.

GENERAL GRANT'S "Personal Memoirs" are said to have earned \$480,000 and to have cast important light on his ill-fated presidential administrations. The Herbert Hoover memoirs, now appearing in *Collier's* and in books under the imprint of Macmillan Company, represent the classic pattern which we have come to expect of a man who has left a high post and has a tale to tell. It is true that Winston Churchill is writing while still in office, but he is describing events that happened in years long past.

Much controversy surrounds General Eisenhower's chronicle of World War II, published in magazine articles and also as a book. Some of the controversy originates, I believe, in the fact that the Treasury Department permitted Eisenhower to write off income from the book as a capital gain instead of annual earnings.

However, the book itself was not published until three years after the end of the war. "Crusade in Europe" did not appear while Eisenhower was commanding the destinies of our armies in Europe. I believe this re-



State Senator Richard L. Neuberger and Representative Maurine Neuberger are the first man and wife to serve together in the Oregon legislature.

moves it from the category of writing on policy for an exclusive source.

As nearly as I can discover from "Reader's Guide," extensive writing for restricted audiences by government officials in office did not blossom fully until the Roosevelt administration. It could have been that interest in such contributions was not high prior to the New Deal.

Memoirs, like those of ex-President Hoover and the late Senator Vandenberg, have brought us much valuable information. We expect this kind of material in books and magazines. But what if Vandenberg, while chairman of the Senate Foreign Relations Committee, had written exclusive articles on the work of that committee?

It seems to me the merits of the following proposed rule might well be studied:

"No official of any branch or level of government, federal or local, shall write exclusively for one particular news or editorial outlet, on any facts involving a public policy under his jurisdiction. Nor shall essential information on governmental decisions be released through one news source to the exclusion of others."

I WOULD like to see preserved the right of the Secretary of the Interior to write an article for an exclusive source telling why he believes Congress should combine the Bureau of Reclamation and the Corps of Army Engineers. I would hope to see forbidden any statement in an exclusive source by the head of the Interior Department describing the condition of America's mineral reserves. One matter is under his control, the other definitely is not.

In my opinion, whether or not the official receives pay for the exclusive contribution is beside the point. I realize this varies. Sometimes the official is paid for his book or article. On other occasions the fee goes to charity, an act for which the official at least stores up good will in his political bank. It could be, too, that a high official might use an exclusive release under his name to place a powerful newspaper in his debt.

Nor do I believe we can totally disregard the fact that many articles, presumably written personally by important officials, actually are prepared by their "ghost writers" who also are on the government payroll. I have known several of these amanuenses for well-known New Dealers. They

said they prepared the book or article. The official made a few modifications or insertions, then it was released under the official's byline. Actually, the author was not the famous federal official, but the obscure bureaucrat tucked away in a corner of a far-flung United States agency.

I grant we must not burn down the house to roast the prime ribs. Public officials should continue to be free to express opinions and to put forth original ideas. Men of the calibre of J. Edgar Hoover and Oscar Chapman have much to offer the public. But let's not have vital facts released through exclusive outlets.

No town would tolerate for one fleeting second the divulgence of the school budget by the school superintendent through one particular paper in a copyrighted article. A fearful clamor would break loose, and rightly so. The federal government is a farther distance away, but the same principle is violated when a cabinet officer can tell through one news service or periodical why crop payments should be reduced or gasoline rationed.

And if the "exclusive" comes your way, remember that all guns can be turned around. The next time, a similar "exclusive" may increase the circulation of your competitor.

promise may be much greater in some fields than in others. The employer can save himself time, and money, by always consulting the school before hiring. It is surprising to learn how many employers don't do this. Normally, schools give very honest information (any other policy is obviously short-sighted) which can help answer questions such as these: Should I hire him? What are his strong points? What are his weak spots? Did he show the same quality of work consistently, or was he improving?

In developing a satisfactory program of courses and laboratory work, the schools face many questions. What is the best way to teach technique courses such as reporting and editing? How can we teach spelling and grammar? We talk continually about "accuracy, accuracy"—how can we make students realize the importance of being accurate? How can we tie up journalism courses with the student's work in American government, economics, municipal administration, and sociology? What type of courses in journalism, and what laboratory work, will give the student the best feeling for the meaningfulness of his non-journalism courses? When must courses be taught in the journalism area—and when should they be taught outside? Of the several hundred courses offered outside of journalism, which should be required, which urged, which recommended?

This is a complex problem, never solved; it changes with every change in courses, with each student, with the capabilities of the journalism staff, and with the changing times. The problem requires constant study from journalism staff members, the advice of workers in the field, and the comment of graduates not too far away from completion of the program.

student: "In my opinion you are not fitted for journalism, and it seems to me you have made a mistake in choosing it as a life work. You ought to drop out." Actually, in this middle-ground group, a certain number will prove good possibilities for journalism, others will be "good to average," and the remainder for the most part will still be "uncertainties" at graduation.

In any group graduating from top-quality schools, all of the impossibles and most of the inadequates will have been screened out. Probably a few "uncertains," from 5 to 15 per cent of the total, will be graduated. Most of these probably can fill some spot in the journalism area satisfactorily, but they must be placed with care; they may, for example, be weak in one field and relatively strong in another.

Many employer troubles with this group develop in the cases where the faculty member says, "Joe, you ought to take a job for a couple of years on a paper where the pace is not too fast, while you get some seasoning." So Joe applies on a fast-moving paper where there is plenty of pressure, he gets a job from a news executive who doesn't check with the school, and Joe performs exactly as the faculty member expected, to the unhappiness of the news executive (who in some cases, unfortunately, will say, "These school of journalism graduates are always lousy!"). So it seems rather important to emphasize that a journalism degree is not an all-inclusive certificate of immediate ability to do a good job.

Instead, such a degree is a "certificate of probable promise"—and the

Goals of Professional Education For Journalism

[Continued from page 7]

faculty member's feeling of infallibility in this delicate area may also be colored by the not-too-frequent case of Bill, who was dropped because he missed deadlines, was generally undependable, and usually inaccurate. So Bill got a job, and now his boss writes, "Bill started slow, but he's going great now. Got any more like him?"

In any entering group of students, from 20 to 40 per cent will be obviously well fitted for the field, on a basis of intelligence, apparent aptitude, and so on.

Another 10 to 40 per cent will appear to be rather obviously unsuited for journalism. In top quality schools this group will either be graded out or encouraged out of journalism. (This is a function of journalism schools, usually well performed, which is often lost sight of.)

What about the others?

It will require a great deal of self-assurance, and a fine sense of infallibility, for anyone to say to such a

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ANY program can be successfully put into effect only with the aid of a good teaching staff.

Ideally each staff member should have a wide background of course work in journalism. He should have had several years, preferably five or more, of varied, high quality, successful experience in the field. He should enjoy working with young people. He should understand clearly the responsibilities of the mass media, and should be able to look at them from the viewpoint of both consumer and producer. He should have a broad educational background, with vigorous, thoughtful interests in many fields other than journalism; he should be no stranger to history, the arts, social science, philosophy.

He must realize that teaching is a

competitive field, and that he must do enough writing and enough research (which almost always will cost him money rather than bring in income) to keep his position in the academic race—and it is a race, fully as competitive as any other. In practically all cases, he should be willing to take less money as a teacher than he could earn in the field (he will have more freedom, but the hours will be longer).

To all this add the requirement that he be an effective teacher. This is not easy; many capable newspaper men simply are not temperamentally suited for teaching.

Such good teachers are scarce. There are not enough to go around. The competition to get and to hold such men is lively, and there seems no way of stepping up production. Such men mature slowly, and too often, with all their capabilities, for very understandable reasons are not interested in teaching.

EVEN a good faculty can be truly effective only with the aid of good equipment and laboratories. These give more reality to the daily work. On a newspaper, the beginning reporter may soon see some of his copy in print and on its way to readers who pay money for the product. In an ideal teaching situation, a live newspaper of that sort should be available for day-to-day classroom use, so that the student learns by noisy experience what kind of hell breaks loose when an error gets into print, or when he tangles up an important news source. Such newspapers are not easy to come by, and operating them takes time, trouble, and in these days, too frequent deficit financing.

This is only one phase of the problem of getting adequate funds, currently one of the biggest worries in journalism education. Money is harder to obtain in most colleges than was the case a few years ago. Income from G. I. and other students is down sharply. Legislative appropriations for state schools have not done particularly well, and private institutions have comparable troubles.

In some cases, faculty members have been dropped (this is not helpful in keeping others in the field, or in attracting new blood). Salary increases have been small, and since the war have generally fallen far behind the rise in the cost of living. Funds for equipment are hard to get, and general expense allocations (books, magazines, office help, printing, supplies, postage, professional

travel) in many cases have been cut at a time when prices are rising.

In short, the school administrator is asked to get better results, in an era of rising prices and salary scales, with a not too adequate budget.

Most administrators know rather clearly how they could improve the quality of their programs. More money would mean better salaries and better teachers, more effective teaching, better equipment, and fewer students per faculty member, so that screening and advising could be done much more thoroughly.

REATIONS with the profession have improved rather noticeably in recent years. Newspaper, radio, and magazine men know more about journalism schools, through reading, through reports at professional meetings, or through visits.

This level of information is still too low, and many men in the field still know too little about schools. A top news executive on a major American daily a few years ago wrote, "I don't know enough about undergraduate journalism schools to discuss them." He also wrote: "Most young graduates who come in to see me have just finished a course in editorial writing. They're all fired up to write editorials. No one has told them the simple truth that no newspaper hires youngsters to write editorials."

I suspect his statement is a prime example of one of the greatest problems of journalism education—the frequent failure of working newsmen to distinguish between the various types of journalism training.

The ninety-six schools listed by *Editor & Publisher* probably includes nearly all of those attempting a "professional" type of training, usually with teachers well grounded in actual practice—and even in these schools there is certainly considerable variation in the quality of the work done.

These professional type schools are very different from practically all of the several hundred others who offer a "major in journalism." This major in nearly all cases will be a "background survey" without the professional approach, taught often by persons with little or no experience in the field, in laboratories usually not well equipped. The graduate of this program will have a very different type and quality of training from the student who completes a program in a school offering "professional" work.

In other words, the news man must "know the school"—and not group all schools together. One way to get better acquainted with schools is through personal visits. These calls are more frequent now than in the past, but

still too few. Probably at least 95 per cent of the working press has not visited a school of journalism within the past three years, and that's a pretty bad showing.

Top-level contact between press and schools has been maintained, and has probably improved somewhat. Five of the great newspaper professional associations for several years past have maintained a working and a financial interest in the American Council on Education for Journalism, in charge of the accrediting program, and now other groups are also being brought in.

More journalism teachers are now keeping up contacts with the working press, through visits to plants and attendance at conventions, but the number is still not great enough. The reasons: shortage of time, heavy teaching loads, lack of funds.

An increasing number of journalism teachers are also getting refresher periods on newspapers, radio stations, or magazines. The Council on Radio Journalism has placed journalism instructors on summer radio news internships for several years. In 1951 the ACEJ placed eight news instructors on daily newspaper reporting-editing jobs for the summer, and six or more will take part in 1952. Wider participation would certainly be more desirable.

The whole area of journalism school-working press contacts is improving, but much more interchange of information and ideas is essential. Specific suggestions on how the working press can learn still more about the schools, and can help them become still better, will be given in a later article.

Editor's Note: This is the first of two articles. The second will appear next month.

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The Book Beat

By DICK FITZPATRICK

POPULAR interest in this year's presidential election is at an all time high. After all, the '48 campaign was interesting, but it was the foregone conclusion—the pollsters and even our best political reporters thought. However, four years ago proved how important 1952 is.

To help the expert and the amateur alike, an interesting book has been prepared by George Gallup and the staff of the American Institute for Public Opinion called *"The Political Almanac—1952"* (B. C. Forbes & Sons Publishing Co., Inc., New York, \$5.95).

This is essentially a collection of statistics but has a fair amount of explanatory information dealing with basic elections subjects.

Following a very short introduction by Gallup and a foreword by Malcolm S. Forbes, the first ninety-five pages of the book are devoted to short explanations and statistics on the following subjects: election of the President, the 1948 presidential elections, presidential elections from 1900 to 1948, the electoral college, party conventions, the Senate, the House, the South, voting turnout, elections of governors. The rest of the book—220 pages—gives state by state election information and statistics.

The details given under each of the major subjects mentioned above are very interesting. For instance, in the discussion of the South, these subjects are covered: Why the Solid South is as it is, how the Solid South voted in all presidential elections from 1860-1948, facts about the primary in the South, and a comparison of the Southern vote with the rest of the nation.

While an edition of this book has been on the market for several elections it is an ideal book for the political writer to have on hand because as a campaign goes on new factors always come up and it is often impossible to get accurate statistics in the political field in a hurry.

For the student, this book would furnish many insights into voting behavior in this country.

Also intended for the political writer is *"Who's Who in United States Politics and American Political Almanac"* (The Macmillan Co., New York, \$25.00). This is a 955 page book with a 1952 supplement of thirty-seven pages.

It contains 10,000 biographies of people who are important in the political field. It also lists, for instance, the national committeemen in each state as well as national convention facts and other miscellaneous facts and statistics.

Although the book was originally issued in 1950, the corrections do not cover the entire picture. For instance Representative C. J. Kerstan of Wisconsin is listed as an ex-Congressman. He was reelected to the 82nd Congress. However, no book covering as many facts as this one could be expected to be completely up to date. But one would assume that on an important thing like the composition of the House of Representatives it would be accurate.

STANLEY MORISON has written, for the specialist, an introduction to a useful book. It is called *"Four Centuries of Fine Printing"* (Farrar, Straus and Young, New York, \$7.50). The book contains samples of the work of 272 presses which were in existence between 1465 and 1924. The book is interesting but is most useful to the expert.

Morison's introduction and discussion of the plates takes up fifty-one of the 342 pages in the book. For the person who works with type, advertising display and other presentation work such as magazine layout, Stanley Hlasta's *"Printing Types and How to Use Them"* (Rutgers University Press, New Brunswick, New Jersey, \$5.50) is highly recommended.

The book contains samples of all common American type faces, gives the characteristics of particular type families, discusses their use, and tells the availability of various type sizes and the like. For anyone who must be able to identify or distinguish between type-faces, 14 pages at the beginning of this book give the answers.

One of the most useful books seen recently is a paper bound, letter-size, 82-page booklet entitled *"Practical Handbook on Effective Illustration in Publication Layout"* (Butler Typo-Design Research Center, Mendota, Ill., \$3.50). This is the first in a series of handbooks by Kenneth B. Butler, lecturer in layout at Northwestern University's Medill School of Journalism.

In the first of five chapters entitled "Illustration as a Layout Tool," Professor Butler says that there are four ways of handling illustration—the half-tone picture, the line-drawing, a combination of the two in which "one portion of the picture is portrayed with half-tone reproduction, the balance by hand-drawn art work," and a fourth which involves neither of the first two in the usual sense but is a "kind of illustration (which) gains its accents by the use of heavy solids . . . reverse plates; bold initial letters; ornaments; tint blocks in color or in screened black; printers' rules and borders." Butler discusses each in a separate chapter.

The highly illustrated booklet shows many unique ways of presenting pictorial material. These will be of great value to the student of illustration as well as the person who each day is called upon to produce new ways of presenting pictorial material. This handbook will be an eye-opener to many.

From Quill Readers

Editor, *The Quill*:

I read with interest the article in the June issue of *The QUILL* concerning a free press by Erwin D. Canham of the *Christian Science Monitor*. He said:

"The news-objectivity of American newspapers has greatly increased. . . . The modern American newspaper has ceased to be the projection of the set of prejudices of a single group of readers."

Well, I wonder! It seems to me that the average editor or publisher's conception of a free press is freedom to say what he wants and freedom to leave unsaid those things that challenge his editorial policy.

Possibly Mr. Canham is not including Chicago in his survey of newspaper trends. I have studied and observed rather closely editorial procedure in the Chicago papers over the past 30 years and I wish I could agree that they have advanced in the fine art of objectivity. In the present political campaign I find it necessary to read three papers a day and listen to radio and television before I can arrive at any approximation of the news trend. In conversation with local readers one can invariably tell from the opinions expressed which newspapers they follow. Hardly a good sign of objectivity in the handling of news.

We all think freedom of speech is a fine thing. Our editors and publishers, all of our politicians, most of the world leaders want free speech for themselves but sometimes fail to realize that freedom is everybody's job. By tradition the editorial page has been reserved for the editor's comment and the expounding of editorial policy; there the editor is free to express himself without hindrance.

But when he slants each important news story to conform, freedom becomes license and by exercising his so-called freedom he deprives the reader of his. Actually, the reader has little recourse. Should he challenge editorial opinion in the form of a letter to the editor there is a slim chance a very much abbreviated and distorted passage from his letter will find its way into print. That chance is small because by the time hundreds of letters are sorted and edited only a select few get into print and these usually just happen to conform to the paper's editorial policy.

Freedom of speech and freedom of the press are extremely important to the continuance of our way of life but no form of legislation can guarantee them. Abuse of their privileges could snuff them out here as it has in other parts of the world. Our daily newspapers should be the strong defenders of freedom but they must first get their own houses in order.

Thomas H. Mullen
Evanston, Ill.

(Editor's Note: Mr. Mullen's letter to The QUILL is printed in full.)

Editor, The Quill:

I feel that The QUILL is very appropriately, as the publication of the professional journalistic society, filling a gap in the journalistic world—that of a medium for general discussion of events and ideas about the press. There is no other American publication to my knowledge which does so in the same way. And certainly the writingest profession ought to have a medium in which to write about itself.

Robert J. Baily
Grand Haven, Mich.

Editor, The Quill:

Santa Claustrophobia! Nominated for pun of the year. And, brother, it takes some fragrance to merit that distinction.

Caracas, Venezuela K. E. Cook

(Editor's Note: Mr. Cook refers to a cut caption in the April issue.)

THE QUILL for August, 1952

Q What was Thomas Jefferson's attitude on beer and brewing?



A He brought brewers to this country because he wanted beer to become popular here.

Like many of our Founding Fathers, Thomas Jefferson, author of the Declaration of Independence, regarded beer as a beverage of moderation. Speaking of beer, Jefferson once wrote, "I wish to see this beverage become common." Toward this end, he brought brewers from Bohemia to teach Americans the art of brewing.

Jefferson's wish was fulfilled—for this beverage of moderation is now served in about two out of every three homes in America.

More about the economic, social and historical role of beer is presented in the book, "Beer and Brewing in America." For a free copy write to the United States Brewers Foundation, 21 East 40th Street, New York 16, N. Y.

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